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# **Title: Microbial oxidation of lithospheric organic carbon in rapidly eroding tropical mountain soils**

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**Abstract:** Lithospheric organic carbon (“petrogenic”; OC<sub>petro</sub>) is oxidized during exhumation and subsequent erosion within mountain ranges. This process is a significant source of CO<sub>2</sub> to the atmosphere over geologic timescales, but the mechanisms that govern oxidation rates in mountain landscapes remain poorly constrained. We demonstrate that, on average, 67 ± 11 % of OC<sub>petro</sub> initially present in bedrock exhumed from the tropical, rapidly eroding Central Range of Taiwan is oxidized within soils, leading to CO<sub>2</sub> emissions of 6.1 – 18.6 t C km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. The molecular and isotopic evolution of bulk OC and lipid biomarkers during soil formation reveals that OC<sub>petro</sub> remineralization is microbially mediated. Rapid oxidation in mountain soils drives CO<sub>2</sub> emissions fluxes that increase with erosion rate, thereby counteracting CO<sub>2</sub> drawdown by silicate weathering and biospheric OC burial.

**One Sentence Summary:** Oxidation of lithospheric organic carbon in eroding mountain soils is rapid and microbially mediated, and resulting CO<sub>2</sub> emissions counteract CO<sub>2</sub> drawdown by silicate weathering and biospheric organic carbon burial.

**Main Text:** Erosion-induced weathering in collisional mountain belts is a major carbon-cycle regulator over million-year timescales and provides a link between tectonics and climate (1, 2). Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is consumed by the export and burial in marine sediments of biospheric organic carbon (OC<sub>bio</sub>) and carbonate minerals precipitated following silicate rock weathering (1). The CO<sub>2</sub> drawdown flux associated with both processes increases with erosion rate (3, 4), highlighting the importance of steep, erosive orogens in driving CO<sub>2</sub> drawdown. By comparison, CO<sub>2</sub> release during exhumation and erosion has received considerably less attention despite its potential to partially or fully negate the effects of geological CO<sub>2</sub> consumption (1, 5, 6). Oxidative weathering of both sulfide minerals (coupled with carbonate dissolution) and petrogenic organic carbon (OC<sub>petro</sub>) contained in exhumed rocks can increase atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and decrease O<sub>2</sub> concentrations over geologic timescales (1, 7-9). Still, the mechanisms that govern oxidation rates and efficiencies in mountain belts remain under-constrained (5, 8, 9).

To better constrain orogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, we assess the controls on OC<sub>petro</sub> oxidation and export within the Central Range of Taiwan, one of the fastest exhuming and eroding mountain belts on Earth (10). Steep relief (11), frequent typhoon landfall (10), and high bedrock landslide rates (11) lead to long-term erosion rates of 3 – 6 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> across the range (10). While supplemental contributions from deeper in the exhumation path are likely, weathering in such mountain landscapes occurs primarily on hillslopes and in colluvial deposits (12, 13). We therefore assess OC molecular and isotopic evolution within multiple hillslope soil profiles located in the LiWu and WuLu River basins (**Fig. S1**) and verify these observations at the catchment scale using LiWu River suspended sediments (14). Soils at our study sites are ≤ 1 m thick, including mineral (A+E) and saprolite (C) layers (15), experience residence times on the order of centuries (14), and overlay bedrock ranging from Mesozoic greenschist and amphibolite at low elevations (Tananao schists) to Cenozoic slate and phyllite near the Lishan Fault (Pilushan and Lushan formations) (16). All lithologies are carbonaceous, with bedrock outcrops containing 0.2 – 0.7 % OC<sub>petro</sub> (**Table S1**) (17).

Significant OC<sub>petro</sub> loss is observed in all soil profiles, as evidenced by the relationship between soil OC content (% OC<sub>soil</sub>) and <sup>14</sup>C activity (expressed as “fraction modern” or Fm) (14). To account for differences in % OC between bedrock lithologies (17), % OC<sub>soil</sub> is expressed as

$$\Delta\%OC = \% OC_{soil} - \% OC_{bedrock}, \quad (1)$$

where % OC<sub>bedrock</sub> is the OC content of bedrock immediately underlying each soil sample. The average fraction of bedrock OC that is oxidized during soil formation,  $f_{ox}$ , can then be quantified by utilizing the fact that OC<sub>petro</sub> is inherently <sup>14</sup>C-free (Fm<sub>petro</sub> = 0.0) and setting Fm<sub>bio</sub> = 1.045 ± 0.079, the measured <sup>14</sup>C activity of vascular plant leaf-wax fatty acids extracted from A+E horizon soils (**Table S2**) (14). Soil OC is treated as a mixture of OC<sub>bio</sub> and residual OC<sub>petro</sub>, leading to the equation (14):

$$Fm_{soil} = Fm_{bio} \left[ \frac{\Delta\%OC + (f_{ox})(\% OC_{bedrock})}{\Delta\%OC + \% OC_{bedrock}} \right]. \quad (2)$$

Fm<sub>soil</sub> is a hyperbolic function of Δ%OC with curvature that is defined by both %OC<sub>bedrock</sub> and  $f_{ox}$ , as shown in **Fig 1**. We simultaneously solve **Eq. 2** for the best-fit % OC<sub>bedrock</sub> and  $f_{ox}$  values using orthogonal distance regression and account for uncertainty using Monte Carlo resampling (14).

On average,  $67 \pm 11 \%$  ( $\pm 1\sigma$ ) of bedrock OC is lost during soil formation, a minimum estimate since deep weathering has likely already removed OC from initial bedrock (18). To test if observed % OC trends simply reflect mobile element losses during weathering and not oxidation *per se*, we solve **Eq. 2** for a subset of samples after normalizing OC content to the immobile element titanium (**Table S1**) (14). Calculated  $f_{ox}$  values using normalized and un-normalized data are identical within uncertainty, indicating no appreciable mobility effect on our results (**Fig. S2**).

Assuming that all OC lost is oxidized to  $CO_2$  (8),  $f_{ox}$  can be used to estimate the steady-state  $CO_2$  emission flux from soils due to  $OC_{petro}$  oxidation, termed  $\Phi_{ox}$ , according to

$$\Phi_{ox} = \frac{(f_{ox})(\% OC_{bedrock})(\rho_{soil})(z_{soil})}{\tau_{soil}}, \quad (3)$$

where  $\rho_{soil}$  is the soil density,  $z_{soil}$  is the soil thickness (15), and  $\tau_{soil}$  is the soil residence time on hillslopes. We estimate  $\tau_{soil}$  using three independent methods (landslide rates, catchment-average denudation rates,  $OC_{bio}$  erosion rates) and incorporate uncertainty for each variable in **Eq. 3** using Monte Carlo resampling across the range of observed values (14), resulting in a median  $\Phi_{ox}$  range of  $6.1 - 18.6 \text{ t C km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for conditions prevalent across the Central Range (**Fig. S3A**) (14). We emphasize that  $\Phi_{ox}$  is a minimum estimate of total  $CO_2$  emissions by  $OC_{petro}$  oxidation due to the potential for OC losses occurring during deep weathering (18). Still, this flux is statistically identical to two independent, catchment-integrated  $OC_{petro}$  oxidation estimates for Taiwanese rivers based on fluvial  $OC_{petro}$  export ( $\leq 12 \text{ t C km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) (19) and dissolved rhenium yield ( $7 - 13 \text{ t C km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ; **Fig. S3B**) (5) and is 2- to 6-fold higher than estimates of  $CO_2$  drawdown by silicate weathering in the LiWu catchment (**Fig. S3C**) (18). The observation that  $\Phi_{ox}$  matches catchment-integrated emissions implies that  $OC_{petro}$  oxidation in Taiwan occurs predominantly within rapidly eroding hillslope soils.

A saprolite depth profile collected from the WuLu catchment indicates that bedrock OC can be oxidized and replaced with  $OC_{bio}$  before A+E horizons have fully developed. Two samples collected at 0.5 m and 0.2 m depth contain similar OC concentrations (0.20 %, 0.28 %, respectively) but drastically different Fm values (0.108, 0.839, respectively; **Table S1**). Rapid  $OC_{petro}$  oxidation can occur (i) abiotically without chemical alteration, (ii) abiotically with chemical alteration, (iii) biotically without chemical alteration, or (iv) biotically with chemical alteration and  $^{14}C$ -depleted biomass production (20-22). To assess alteration and to track multiple OC sources within a single sample, we utilize Ramped PyrOx (RPO) serial combustion (23). This technique heats each sample at a constant ramp rate to separate OC based on thermal lability and determines Fm values for specific temperature intervals (termed RPO fractions) (14). To quantitatively compare OC chemical structure, we determine the underlying thermal activation energy ( $E$ ) distribution for each sample, termed  $p(0,E)$ , as this is an intrinsic property of carbon bond strength and thus a proxy for chemical composition (23). Unlike  $^{14}C$  activity, end-member mixing does not shift OC in  $E$  space. Mixing  $OC_{bio}$  with unaltered  $OC_{petro}$  will thus result in a bimodal  $p(0,E)$  distribution, whereas chemical alteration is required to explain the presence of intermediate  $E$  values (14, 23).

We constrain bedrock  $E$  using particulate OC (POC) from 27 suspended sediment samples, including isolated  $\geq 2 \text{ mm}$  clasts, collected from the LiWu River during four typhoon events (14). Because sediment exported during typhoons is dominated by material sourced from

bedrock incision, distributed runoff erosion, and landsliding throughout the basin (11, 12), we expect this sample set to integrate outcropped bedrock lithologies that contain relatively unweathered OC<sub>petro</sub>. This is supported by bulk POC <sup>13</sup>C content (expressed as δ<sup>13</sup>C values) and total nitrogen to POC ratios (Table S3), which span the range of Tananao schist, Lushan formation, and Pilushan formation values (17). Fig. 2A shows that bedrock OC is exclusively associated with  $E \geq 185 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  (termed high- $E$ ; Fig. S3A) (14), consistent with the observed partial graphitization of this material (16). We additionally constrain vascular-plant OC  $p(0,E)$  using two organic-rich ( $\geq 5 \%$ ) surface soils characterized by bulk Fm values similar to those of plant-wax fatty acids (14). For both samples,  $\geq 90 \%$  of OC is associated with  $E < 150 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  (termed low- $E$ ), indicating that OC<sub>bio</sub> and OC<sub>petro</sub> are effectively separated in  $E$  space.

Energy distributions and <sup>14</sup>C activity in soil and saprolite materials provide strong evidence for OC<sub>petro</sub> chemical alteration during weathering. Up to 51 % of OC contained in saprolites and deep A+E horizons lies between 150 and 185 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> (termed mid- $E$ ; Table S4; Fig. S4B-C); higher than that corresponding to vascular-plant OC ( $< 150 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ) yet lower than bedrock OC ( $\geq 185 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ). This observation can result from either (i) increasing vascular-plant OC  $E$  by stabilization during aging in soils (24) or (ii) decreasing residual OC<sub>petro</sub>  $E$  during oxidative weathering (20, 21). We assess the relative importance of these mechanisms using the <sup>14</sup>C activity of each RPO fraction (Table S5). As shown in Fig. 2B, low- $E$  Fm values cluster near those of vascular-plant fatty acids, whereas high- $E$  material approaches Fm of zero. Meanwhile, mid- $E$  OC spans an Fm range from  $0.083 \pm 0.002$  to  $0.912 \pm 0.008$ . We rule out the possibility that <sup>14</sup>C-depleted mid- $E$  OC exclusively reflects OC<sub>bio</sub> aging because (i) this would require a biospheric component that has aged up to 20,000 <sup>14</sup>C yr, significantly longer than the centennial soil residence times in Taiwan (14), and (ii) plant-wax fatty acids are not detected in some saprolite samples (Table S6). Thus, mid- $E$  material must reflect a mixture of weathered OC<sub>petro</sub> and moderately aged OC<sub>bio</sub>.

We treat OC<sub>petro</sub> that has been chemically altered during weathering as a unique end member described by Fm = 0.0 and a value of  $f_{\text{mid}}$ , the fraction of  $p(0,E)$  contained within the mid- $E$  range, greater than the highest observed saprolite value of 0.51 (14). Fig. 3A shows that all hillslope samples, with the exception of one unweathered saprolite, are adequately explained by a mixture of OC<sub>bio</sub> and chemically altered OC<sub>petro</sub>. This end member is also observed in LiWu River POC collected during typhoon floods, as evidenced by the divergence from a vertical mixing line between OC<sub>petro</sub> and OC<sub>bio</sub> in Fig. 3A. Therefore, along with unweathered bedrock OC (19) sourced from deep incision and landsliding (11), we detect catchment-scale export of chemically altered OC<sub>petro</sub> from Central Range hillslopes during typhoon flood events. Because calculated  $f_{\text{mid}}$  depends on our choice of mid- $E$  range (here, 150 to 185 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>), it is possible that mixing trends and end-member compositions are sensitive to changes in  $E$  boundary values. We test this sensitivity by allowing these boundary values to vary by  $\pm 10 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  (14). Although quantitative differences exist (Fig. S5), resulting mixing trends are qualitatively robust, indicating that the importance of chemically altered OC<sub>petro</sub> is insensitive to our choice of mid- $E$  boundary values.

Fatty acid molecular distributions and δ<sup>13</sup>C values imply that rapidly oxidized OC<sub>petro</sub> in soils is incorporated into microbial biomass, supporting laboratory-based incubation studies (20, 22). We calculate  $f_{\text{microbial}}$ , the fraction of total fatty acids that are microbial in origin (25, 26), as a proxy for the relative abundance of heterotrophic vs. vascular-plant biomass (14). This



approach excludes fungal contributions and is thus a minimum estimate of heterotrophic biomass. **Fig. 3B** shows that bulk Fm is negatively correlated with  $f_{\text{microbial}}$  across all soil and POC samples. We do not expect this trend to be linear due to fatty acid production biases (25, 26). Still, this relationship clearly suggests that heterotrophic biomass is more abundant in samples containing predominantly  $^{14}\text{C}$ -free OC.

Sample limitation prevented measurement of microbial fatty acid  $^{14}\text{C}$  activity (14), but their  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values imply that bedrock OC is used as substrate (**Table S7**) (26, 27). Bulk OC and plant-wax fatty acid  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values correlate strongly in A+E horizons ( $r^2 = 0.959$ ;  $p\text{-val} < 0.001$ ;  $n = 7$ ), reflecting the predominance of  $\text{OC}_{\text{bio}}$  in these samples, but are uncorrelated in C-horizons ( $p\text{-val} > 0.05$ ;  $n = 4$ ) due to a lack of significant  $\text{OC}_{\text{bio}}$  contribution to saprolites (**Fig. S6**). Still, if  $\text{OC}_{\text{bio}}$  were the sole substrate for heterotrophs, then microbial and plant-wax fatty acid  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values should correlate strongly with a constant  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  offset (27) in all samples. This is not observed in either A+E horizon ( $p\text{-val} > 0.05$ ;  $n = 7$ ) or saprolite ( $p\text{-val} > 0.05$ ;  $n = 4$ ) samples, indicating that vascular plant OC cannot be the only substrate. Rather, this lack of correlation requires a secondary microbial carbon source (20-22), namely bedrock OC. We conclude that mid-E,  $^{14}\text{C}$ -free material is a product of microbial bedrock oxidation, produced either directly by extracellular enzymes or indirectly after acid hydrolysis (20), and is manifest as  $^{14}\text{C}$ -depleted living biomass (22) or as residual, chemically altered  $\text{OC}_{\text{petro}}$  (21).

Substantial bedrock OC replacement within saprolites implies that significant weathering occurs  $\leq 1$  m below the surface and that microbially mediated  $\text{OC}_{\text{petro}}$  oxidation can proceed at a pace matching the rapid exhumation in Taiwan. We propose that exhumation and hillslope erosion rates exert a first-order control on  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions from  $\text{OC}_{\text{petro}}$  oxidation, as faster erosion will increase the rate of bedrock exposure to the weathering front (8). This is further supported by measurements of the dissolved rhenium flux from Taiwanese rivers, a proxy for  $\text{OC}_{\text{petro}}$  oxidation, which increases with erosion rate (5). However, the relationship between  $\text{OC}_{\text{petro}}$  oxidation and physical erosion rate cannot be linear. Large earthquakes and typhoons are known to cause widespread bedrock landsliding (28-30) and elevated export of  $\text{OC}_{\text{petro}}$  by rivers (19). Such events increase catchment-averaged erosion rates (28), but could decrease catchment-averaged  $\text{OC}_{\text{petro}}$  oxidation efficiency by bypassing the hillslope soil weathering window.  $\text{OC}_{\text{petro}}$  remineralization in Taiwan is incomplete, as evidenced by the abundance of bedrock OC in sediments exported by rivers (19) and deposited in nearby coastal margins (31). We predict a dampened response of  $\text{OC}_{\text{petro}}$ -derived  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions to further erosion rate increases, as increasing landslide rates will result in less catchment area that is available for soil formation and weathering.

Microbially mediated oxidative weathering in Taiwanese hillslope soils offsets geologic  $\text{CO}_2$  drawdown and  $\text{O}_2$  production by silicate weathering and  $\text{OC}_{\text{bio}}$  burial (1, 5, 8, 22). The  $\Phi_{\text{ox}}$  range calculated here is similar in magnitude to  $\text{CO}_2$  source estimates from sulfide oxidation ( $\geq 22.9 \pm 1.0 \text{ t C km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ; LiWu basin only) (9), as well as  $\text{CO}_2$  sinks from silicate weathering ( $3.1 \pm 0.1 \text{ t C km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ; LiWu basin only; **Fig. S3C**) (18) and  $\text{OC}_{\text{bio}}$  burial ( $21 \pm 10 \text{ t C km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ; Taiwan average; **Fig. S3D**) (14, 32). This process is likely globally significant, as rapid soil formation is observed in other tropical and temperate orogenic settings such as the Southern Alps of New Zealand (33). We therefore hypothesize that  $\text{CO}_2$  consumption is not favored within highly erosive mountain belts dominated by OC- and sulfide-rich low- and intermediate-grade metasedimentary lithologies. This results from the observation that  $\text{OC}_{\text{petro}}$  and sulfide mineral

208 oxidation is not limited by reaction kinetics even at high erosion rates (5, 8, 21), unlike silicate  
209 weathering and OC<sub>bio</sub> export (4, 34). Conversely, the magnitude of the net CO<sub>2</sub> sink likely  
210 increases with physical erosion rate in orogens dominated by high-grade metamorphic and  
211 igneous rocks due to their lower OC<sub>petro</sub> and sulfide contents. While the global fluxes and the  
212 timescales over which they impact atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> concentrations remain to be  
213 assessed, our results demonstrate the importance of microbially mediated OC<sub>petro</sub> oxidation and  
214 its relationship to tectonic and erosive controls on the global carbon cycle and Earth's long-term  
215 climate.

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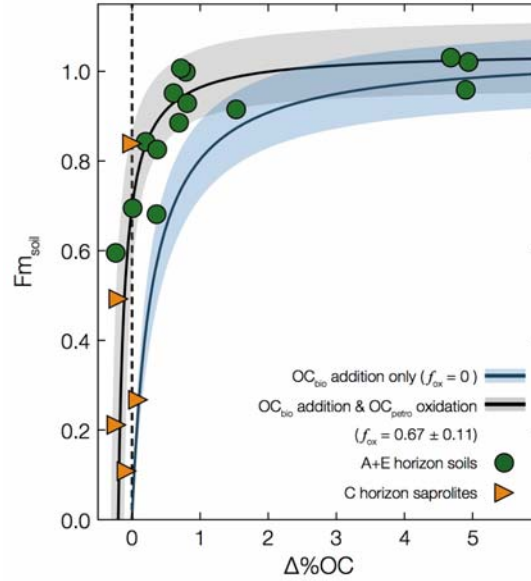
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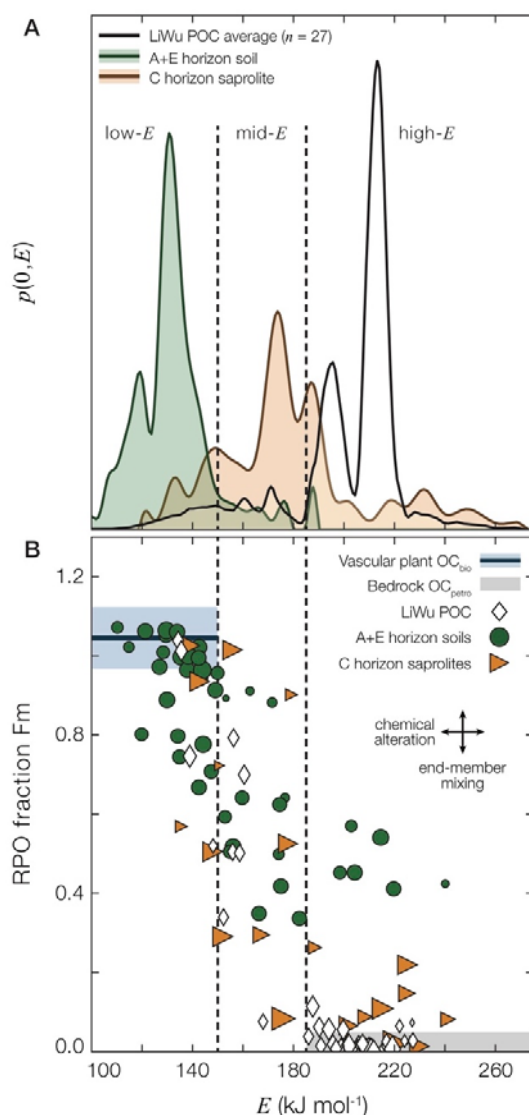
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392 analyzed data; J.D.H., R.G.H., N. Hovius, and V.V.G. wrote the manuscript with input from all  
393 authors.  
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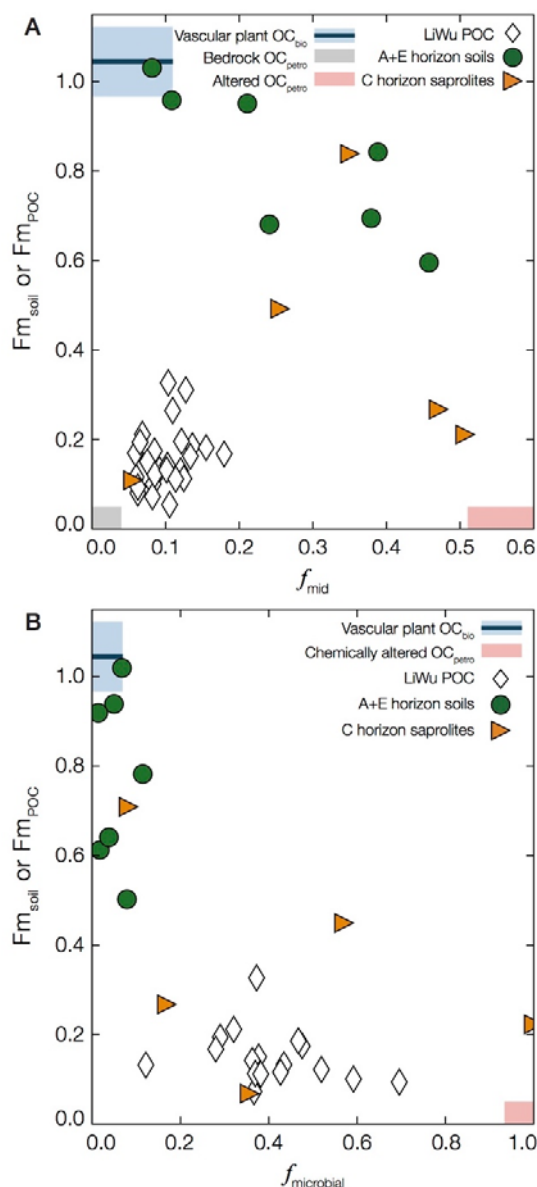


**Fig. 1. Evidence for bedrock OC oxidation.** Blue line is the solution to **Eq. 2** assuming no  $OC_{petro}$  oxidation during soil formation ( $OC_{bio}$  addition only;  $f_{ox} = 0$ ). Black line is the orthogonal distance regression best-fit solution that minimizes the residual error between measured (green circles, orange triangles) and predicted  $Fm_{soil}$  values. Shaded region for both trends is the propagated  $\pm 1\sigma$  uncertainty (14). Best-fit results indicate that  $67 \pm 11$  % of bedrock OC is lost during oxidative weathering.  $\Delta\%OC = 0$  is shown as a vertical dashed line. Measurement error bars are smaller than marker sizes.



**Fig. 2. Evidence for  $OC_{petro}$  chemical alteration.** (A) Representative  $p(0,E)$  distributions highlighting the differences between OC end members: average of LiWu POC exported during typhoon events ( $n = 27$ ; black), organic-rich A+E horizon topsoil (green), and C horizon saprolite (orange). Each  $p(0,E)$  distribution integrates to unity (y-axis values not shown) (14, 23). (B)  $E$  vs. Fm relationships for all soils (green circles, orange triangles) and LiWu POC (white diamonds) in which RPO fraction <sup>14</sup>C activity was measured. Marker sizes represent the relative amount of total OC contained in each RPO fraction. Constraints on end-member  $E$  and Fm ranges are described in the main text (blue, vascular-plant  $OC_{bio}$ ; gray,  $OC_{petro}$ ). Black arrows represent theoretical trends for end-member mixing (vertical) and chemical alteration (horizontal) (23) and indicate that alteration is necessary in order to explain the presence of mid- $E$  OC. For both panels, dashed lines separate OC into low- $E$  (<150 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>), mid- $E$  (150 ≤  $E$  < 185 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>), and high- $E$  (≥185 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>) regions. Fm error bars are smaller than marker sizes.





**Fig. 3. Evidence for microbially mediated bedrock OC oxidation.** (A) Bulk Fm vs.  $f_{\text{mid}}$  relationships for soil (green circles, orange triangles) and LiWu POC (white diamonds). All soils, with the exception of the 0.5 m saprolite discussed in the main text, are described by a mixing line between vascular-plant  $OC_{\text{bio}}$  (blue) and chemically altered  $OC_{\text{petro}}$  (red) (14). LiWu River POC is dominated by bedrock  $OC$  (gray) but does contain detectable chemically altered  $OC_{\text{petro}}$ , as evidenced by the deviation from a vertical mixing line between  $OC_{\text{bio}}$  and  $OC_{\text{petro}}$ . (B) Bulk Fm vs.  $f_{\text{microbial}}$  relationships for all samples in which fatty acid concentrations were analyzed (14). The relative abundance of microbial fatty acids increases with decreasing Fm across all samples, suggesting that microbial respiration is the source of chemically altered  $OC_{\text{petro}}$ . Measurement error bars are smaller than marker sizes.

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